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# A one-pass valency-oriented chunker for German

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## Abstract

Non-finite state parsers provide fine-grained information. However, they are computationally demanding. Therefore, it is interesting to see how far a shallow parsing approach is able to go. In a pattern-based matching operation, the transducer described here consists of POS-tags using regular expressions that take advantage of the characteristics of German grammar. The process aims at finding linguistically relevant phrases with a good precision, which enables in turn an estimation of the actual valency of a given verb. The chunker reads its input exactly once instead of using cascades, which greatly benefits computational efficiency. This finite-state chunking approach does not return a tree structure, but rather yields various kinds of linguistic information useful to the language researcher. Possible applications include simulation of text comprehension on the syntactical level, creation of selective benchmarks and failure analysis.

**Keywords:** chunking, valency, shallow parsing, finite-state automata, syntactic phrases

## 1. Introduction

### 1.1. Finite-state transducers applied to German

The idea to use finite-state automata to approximate grammar became popular in the early nineties, following the work of Pereira (1990) among others. As Karttunen (2001) reports, after a few decades of work on more powerful grammars due to the “persuasiveness of syntactic structures”, computational linguists began working again with finite-state automata. The notion of chunk parsing (Abney, 1991) has been crucial for the evolution of finite-state parsers, as well as the notion of cascaded transducers.

The fact that these automata do not yield full parses but rather a series of indications obtained faster was considered to be particularly relevant, especially on the application side. Consequently the authors of the information extractor FASTUS stated that simple mechanisms can achieve a lot more than had previously been thought possible (Hobbs et al., 1997). As Neumann et al. (1997) have shown, German is not an exception.

The growing interest in the research community towards the parsing using finite-state transducers of unrestricted texts written in German led to the publication of several mature parsers during the last decade. Kermes and Evert (2002) as well as Schiehlen (2003) use several levels of parsing to achieve a better precision, as they most notably enable to resolve ambiguities and to check the parsing structures for correctness. The finite-state approach proved adequate for German, as Hinrichs (2005) mentions: “It turns out that topological fields together with chunked phrases provide a solid basis for a robust analysis of German sentence structure”.

The mature work on FST bears useful insights on the organization of German. For instance, FST parsers have problems with certain types of clauses, which is one reason why they were primarily dismissed by the advocates of generative grammar (Müller, 2007). Since Müller’s doctoral thesis in 2007, little has been done to try to provide an overview of the state of the art, which may be explained by the efficiency of the parsers.

### 1.2. Practical interest of a valency-oriented tool

Given these abilities a less powerful approach could prove efficient when it comes to studying various syntactic phenomena, by using the strengths of the FST on one hand and exploiting the irregularities in the output from natural language processing tools, such as part-of-speech taggers, on the other in order to detect linguistic phenomena. In fact, non-finite state parsers have been found to provide helpful features but they are computationally demanding, and it can be interesting to see how far a finite-state approach is able to go when it comes to delivering fine-grained information.

Practical applications include readability assessment, isolation of difficult parts of a text, creation of selective benchmarks for parsers based on particular syntactical asperities as well as failure analysis. Hints can be used to assess text quality and/or quality of POS-tagger output, as the valency analysis reveals the existence of sentences without verbs or the lack of frequent constituents such as head nouns for instance. This proves useful in non-standard text analysis, typically in learner or web corpora. Furthermore, it can also be used in these cases to assess the syntactical difficulty of a given phrase or sentence, which is considered an important criterion in readability assessment (Dell’Orletta et al., 2011).

This approach could also encompass what Biber (1992) calls “information packaging”, stating that more detectable features linked to this notion could enable fuller models of discourse complexity. In a similar effort to combine different linguistic levels to get a more precise picture of text difficulty, Dell’Orletta et al. (2011) deal with “parse tree depth features”, such as the depth of embedded complement chains and the number of verb dependents. They have taken over the research by Pitler and Nenkova (2008) who also used parser output features to detect syntactic complexity.

Thus, the use of the by-products of such tools to derive information about a text is common among researchers. However, the parsers employed in these studies are compu-

tationally complex, which makes analysis of large corpora dependent on time and resources. To our best knowledge it has not been tried so far to give an approximation for syntactic information, produced by simplified models designed on purpose.

My implementation of a chunk parsing method is part of annotation techniques designed to help qualify texts. More precisely, it is part of criteria which I documented in Barbaresi (2011). These cues consist in a series of approximations of more sophisticated processes that are gathered in order to provide a “reasonable” image of text complexity. They are also a possible input for decision processes in web corpus construction (Schäfer et al., 2013).

## **2. Description**

### **2.1. State of the art of this processing step**

Several researchers have focused on this particular step, which is most of the time integrated in more complete processing tools. In the FASTUS approach (Hobbs et al., 1997), the basic phrases are such a step, where sentences are segmented into noun groups, verb groups, and particles. Another stage dedicated to complex phrases follows, where complex noun groups and complex verb groups are identified. The authors consider that the identification problems regarding noun phrases (such as the prepositional phrase attachment problem) cannot be solved reliably, whereas syntactic constructs such as noun groups can (i.e. the head noun of a noun phrase together with its determiners and other left modifiers).

My approach is also comparable to the segmentation part of the Sundance shallow parser (Riloff and Phillips, 2004) as well as to shallow parsing as shown by Voss (2005): the detection of indicators of phrase structure without necessarily constructing that full structure.

### **2.2. Characteristics of valency-oriented phrase chunking**

The grouping into possibly relevant chunks enables valency detection for each verb based on topological fields, which is considered to be a productive approach for German grammar since the seminal work of Reis (1980).

The main difficulty criteria addressed by this approach are, on the intra-propositional side, the syntactic complexity of the groups (and possibly grammatically relevant phrases) and, on the propositional side, the complementation of the verbs as well as the topological nature of a phrase.

The transducer takes part-of-speech tags as input and prints assumptions about the composition of the phrases and about the position of the verb as output.

### **2.3. Characteristics of one-pass processing**

Our approach aims at being robust. It takes advantage of the STTS tagset (Schiller et al., 1995), and uses the tags as they are produced by the TreeTagger (Schmid, 1994). A more precise version including number, gender and case information provided by the RFTagger (Schmid and Laws, 2008) is possible and is currently under development. Nonetheless the newer tagger was significantly slower during our tests and thus it was not used for this

study as it defeats the purpose of a one-pass operation in terms of computational efficiency.

The design is similar to parsers like YAC (Kermes and Evert, 2002), except that there is merely one step instead of several ones, as the program is designed to be an indicator among others. It deals with a linear approach, where the transducer takes one tag at a time without having to “look back”, which accounts for computational efficiency.

The analysis relies on a pattern-based matching of POS-tags using regular expressions (which are themselves finite-state automata). The patterns take into account multiple possible scenarios of tag distribution. At each state, the transducer expects certain types of tags, which allow for a change of state. If the transducer starts, but does not find a given tag, it comes back to its initial state and ceases to output.

Forming a sort of ecosystem with the tagger, it is tightly dependent on it and requires to build on a stabilized one, whose decisions in common situations are (at least statistically) known.

Hand-crafted rules have already been considered as a noteworthy alternative to machine learning approaches (Müller, 2007). However, because of this fine-tuning, the chunker is limited to German.

### **2.4. Objectives**

The purpose is neither to return a tree structure nor to deliver the best results in terms of accuracy (at least not primarily), but rather to yield various kinds of linguistic information useful to the language researcher.

The results are often comparable to text chunks, but the approach is closer to grammatical rules and to the definition of a phrase. The purpose is not to enfold every single particle, i.e. to achieve good recall, but to find word groups that are linguistically relevant with a good precision.

I share my objective with Voss (2005), which is to approximate a part of syntactic analysis that can be done automatically with few resources and glean as much syntactic information as possible without parsing.

## **3. Implementation**

### **3.1. Detection of phrases**

The detection of noun phrases and prepositional phrases takes place as shown in Figure 1. Starting from POS-tags, the transducer can go through several states and add tokens to the chunk according to certain transition rules before reaching its final step, i.e. a common or a proper noun (the tags NN or NE, respectively) that is not followed by a word which could be possibly linked to the chunk, such as another noun or a tag which leads to the first state.

The detection of prepositional phrases is similar to mentioned scheme, with the main difference being the tags that allow a sequence to begin (APPRART and APPR). The head of the phrase is supposedly on the right of the group. The pattern is greedy: everything that fits under a predefined composition of a phrase counts. While this is a design decision that makes the implementation easier, it does not always perform well.

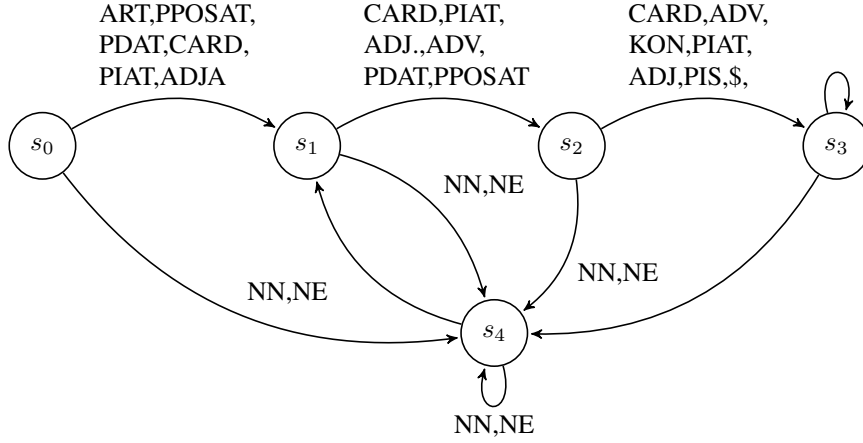


Figure 1: Simplified pattern used for detecting noun phrases on the basis of POS-tags using the STTS tagset (Schiller et al., 1995). The additional APPRART and APPR tags are required to initiate the detection of prepositional phrases.

The chains of probable tags produced by the tagger as part of its operational design enable pattern analysis, which is based on known syntactical and grammatical rules, simple, well-known patterns, which as such are very likely to give satisfying results.

Thus, the constitution of the surface parser leaves little room for false incorporations, though abusive statements are not prohibited by design. Nonetheless, there is little chance of seeing incoherent output of the parser, since it takes benefit of the analysis by chains done by the tagger. The analysis of the tag probabilities given by the TreeTagger shows that there are two main cases: either it is quite confident about its output, or it fails at determining a reliable tag, which often affects several tags in a row. When the parser is confronted with such unusual tag chains, it ceases to output.

### 3.2. Actual valency

The purpose is to benefit from the detection mentioned above to give an estimation of the number of arguments that may be syntactically connected to a given verb. In order to do so, there are two operations needed, one on the extra-clausal and one on the intra-clausal level.

First, one has to find the boundaries of the clauses, since the sentence is not a relevant unit. In the case of German, this can often be done by locating the commas, as clauses are very frequently delimited by them, provided that they are not part of enumerations. Then, each head of a chunk found in a given clause increments the actual valency variable.

Due to the greediness of the phrase detection, the value is rather under- than overestimated, which could prove interesting when it comes to comprehension level assessment. In fact, the estimated valency is most of the time between 2 or 5 complements per verb, which confers to a value of 5 or more a decisive character. In fact, this order of magnitude indicates that the sentence is bound to have a complex structure.

### 3.3. Proof of concept and adaptability

The transducer was first implemented to use it as a proof of concept, a standalone part of a text enrichment workflow. The code for this specific part has been made available online under an open source license<sup>1</sup>. As it is based on a series of conditional statements, IF-ELSIF-ELSE loops following the structure roughly pictured in Figure 1, it can be easily translated to another programming language. Other constraints can also easily be added. All statements can also be used in finite-state formalisms. The main dependency in terms of tools are the tagger and the tagset.

It is conceivable to use a “flat approach” of this issue by using one regular expression containing all the plausible scenarios and applying it directly to a whole text, a whole series of tags to match the candidates. Due to the computational complexity of long strings and multiple OR constraints, which is sometimes deteriorated by automata implementation issues of programming languages (Cox, 2007), this approach was not used for this study. The decomposition of the pattern and the use of a finite-state transducer benefits greatly to the processing speed as well as to the modularity of the analysis.

### 3.4. Example

The output of the finite-state transducer and the valency number guessed by the chunker is shown in Figure 2 under the text. “R” indicates a “greedy” right extension pattern was matched, the numbers indicate the state of the finite-state automaton as described in Figure 1), then the valency number guessed by the chunker. Finally, the numbers in bold font show the theoretically expected output.

The enumeration at the beginning is a problem, as it makes the proper identification of the base of the valency complementation a lot more difficult. The chunker fails at it, but still manages to count one complementation and not more, for instance because the commas are used as a hint to detect an enumeration. This guess is false from a linguistic point of view, but by design a better precision

<sup>1</sup><https://github.com/adbar/valency-oriented-chunker>

Überfüllte Einzimmerbehausungen , moderne Apartments oder Kolonialvillen im französischen Viertel – der														
NP0	NP3		NP0	NP3	NP3-R	NP3-R	PP0-R	PP1-R	PP3-R		NP0			
	1			1										
						1								
Fotokünstler	Hu	Yang	versucht	mit	seinen	Bildern	,	möglichst	viele	Facetten	seiner	Heimatstadt	einzufangen	.
NP3	NP3-R	NP3-R	VP	PP0	PP1	PP3		NP0	NP3	NP1-R	NP3-R		VP	
2						3			1					
1						2			1					

Figure 2: Example of the chunker output: Sentence text at the first level, the phrases being underlined, chunker output at the second level and valency counter at the third. The gold standard is at the fourth level in bold font. NP, PP and VP are phrase types, the numbers are states described in Figure 1. The letter R implies that an extension on the right has been detected.

cannot be achieved in those cases, as the end of the phrase comes unexpectedly late in the processing flow. This first part also illustrates the left-to-right parsing of the syntactic components, which could be overridden by a second pass. In this case, it is clear that one trades accuracy against this kind of robustness by adopting the one-pass approach.

The sequence starting with a dash shows a further problem, because in this case the counter should be reset. The noun phrases are identified properly, but the valency-complementation values are false.

The last part of the sentence is tagged properly and it shows the ability of the chunker to avoid issues link to the extensions on the right of the noun phrases (proper name and genitive adjuncts), to reset the counter at the beginning of a subordinate clause and to deal with discourse markers.

## 4. Evaluation

### 4.1. Large-scale analysis

Several grammatical particles are not taken into account, such as illocutionary and modal particles, adverbial portions of phrasal verbs and connectors.

Therefore, in order to evaluate the performance of the chunker, one can compute the ratio between the amount of tags that are concerned by the analysis and the amount of tokens for which there is no output. There are no evaluation metrics for the actual valency detection so far, since it is still an experimental feature which relies heavily on other processes.

The corpus used for evaluation consists of 2,416 recent online articles of the German version of the *Geo* magazine<sup>2</sup>, comprising a total of 838,790 tokens. There are 469,655 non-verbal tokens for which there is an output and 234,120 verbal tokens (not only verbs but also modifiers like conjunctions or verbal particles) about which the transducer made a statement. Without the punctuation marks (representing 92,680 tokens according to the tags produced by the TreeTagger), that leaves about 6 % of the tokens that are possibly words without possible connections.

As already mentioned, the efficiency of the chunker regarding the particles it takes into account is interesting: 547,686 non-verbal tokens in total had a chance to be analyzed, which means that about 86 % of these tokens were considered to be part of a grammatically relevant chunk. If about 14 % of the tags were not incorporated,

that means this information could be used to detect difficulties.

The cases for which there is no output are particularly interesting when it comes to text comprehension: if a grammatical structure is not recognized, then it may be a rare form or an error of the tagger. Both could be linked and both are relevant as a source of processing difficulty by humans or by machines. It can also mean that the structure is particularly long and/or complex, which is also relevant.

This information can also be used in order to isolate difficult parts of a text to compare the existing finite-state parsers, from which it is known that center embedding in noun phrases (Müller, 2007) or recursion issues are a source of problems.

### 4.2. Evaluation in detail

In order to give more precise insights on the performance of the chunker, its output has been evaluated on three different samples of 1,000 tokens in a row extracted from the corpus. The samples comprised a total of 180 sentences spread across eight different articles. The chunker found 831 valency complementations. 95 structures were falsely counted as valency elements, of which the noun phrase was correctly parsed but not numbered properly in 44 cases. 87 relevant structures were missed. Thus, the efficiency in terms of recall is slightly below 90 % on the test samples. The numeration accuracy is around 87 % and the F-measure for the values below is .890.

Output	Errors	Missed	Precision	Recall
831	95	87	.886	.894

### 4.3. Possible improvements

Close evaluation of the output has made it clear that there are two kinds of problems: those related to linguistics and those related to language processing issues.

On one hand, the impact in terms of valency of reflexive pronouns could be more adequately addressed. Trickier problems arise when loosely defined word categories come into focus, such as discourse markers, whose importance cannot be automatically verified using substitution tests. The task consisting of defining annotation guidelines based on acknowledged word categories in the field of linguistics is a challenge by itself.

<sup>2</sup><http://www.geo.de>

On the other hand, a substantial part of the errors deal with tokenization and tagging artifacts such as falsely annotated URL components or punctuation issues. In fact, it is crucial in this one-pass approach to define a range of possible clause boundaries, from quotes to commas and to indirect speech markers, as it could improve precision.

## 5. Conclusion

A one-pass chunking and valency detection transducer has been presented. It is mainly linear and employs a bottom-up linguistic model implemented using finite-state automata. This allows by design for a fast processing speed and satisfies the constraints to work with large corpora.

Although design decisions can account for missing or false results in some cases, evaluation shows that this trade-off seems to be justifiable. There was an existing output for 86 % of the tokens in our corpus, and the valency counter's guesses are correct in 87 % of the cases. The first figure reveals that the chunker is quite permissive, whereas the latter shows that its accuracy is acceptable. Both metrics do not show what this tool could not integrate or analyze successfully, which is exactly where its possible application lies. This enables to focus on complex phrases or sentences as well as on irregularities in a corpus.

Future work includes three main topics of interest. First, an error analysis concerning on one hand the integration of certain grammatical particles and non-standard text-genres and tokenization artifacts on the other hand. Second, the integration of more precise morphosyntactic information which could enable a fine-grained analysis of the right extensions of the noun phrase, for example genitive forms following nouns. The third topic of interest deals with metrics for actual valency detection, as the number of verbal dependents could be a highly relevant factor.

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